together with Cox-dependent prostaglandins. As prostaglandins are oxidative stress markers and therapeutic targets for many human disorders, the implications are far reaching.

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Supplementary Materials

www.sciencemag.org/content/344/6185/754/suppl/DC1 Materials and Methods Figs. S1 to S13 Tables S1 to S3 References (21–34)

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Sulfur Oxidation Genes in Diverse Deep-Sea Viruses

Karthik Anantharaman, ¹ Melissa B. Duhaime, ² John A. Breier, ³ Kathleen A. Wendt, ⁴ Brandy M. Toner, ⁴ Gregory J. Dick^{1,2,5}*

Viruses are the most abundant biological entities in the oceans and a pervasive cause of mortality of microorganisms that drive biogeochemical cycles. Although the ecological and evolutionary effects of viruses on marine phototrophs are well recognized, little is known about their impact on ubiquitous marine lithotrophs. Here, we report 18 genome sequences of double-stranded DNA viruses that putatively infect widespread sulfur-oxidizing bacteria. Fifteen of these viral genomes contain auxiliary metabolic genes for the α and γ subunits of reverse dissimilatory sulfite reductase (rdsr). This enzyme oxidizes elemental sulfur, which is abundant in the hydrothermal plumes studied here. Our findings implicate viruses as a key agent in the sulfur cycle and as a reservoir of genetic diversity for bacterial enzymes that underpin chemosynthesis in the deep oceans.

hemolithoautotrophic bacteria are ubiquitous in the dark oceans (1), where they serve as a sink for CO_2 (2) through primary production that equals up to 53% of the particulate organic carbon exported from the photic zone (3). Uncultured sulfur-oxidizing bacteria of the SUP05 clade are among the most abundant and widespread marine chemolithoautotrophs, fixing carbon and oxidizing reduced sulfur species and hydrogen in diverse marine environments such as hydrothermal vent plumes (4), hydrothermal vent-associated animals (5, 6), and oxygen minimum zones (7), where they underpin cryptic links

between the sulfur and nitrogen cycles (8). Although viruses are abundant in these deep-sea ecosystems (9), little is known about viruses that infect lithotrophic primary producers.

We conducted shotgun metagenomic sequencing on samples from five different hydrothermal vent plumes and associated deep ocean waters at the Eastern Lau Spreading Center (Lau Basin) in the western Pacific Ocean and one plume at Guaymas Basin in the Gulf of California (10, 11) (table S1). De novo assembly of sequence reads and binning by tetranucleotide signatures (12) revealed discrete genomic "bins" (fig. S1). Five bins (henceforth Lau77, Lau85, Lau87, Lau218, and Lau220) contained 18 viral genome sequences of putative SUP05 viruses. Phylogeny of the viral large terminase gene (terL) (fig. S2) [which reflects phage DNA packaging mechanisms (13)], synteny with well-characterized phages of known taxonomy (fig. S3), and results of protein sequence similarity searches against public sequence databases (fig. S4) indicated that the five viruses belonged to three marine viral families of the orders Caudovirales (double-stranded DNA viruses, no RNA stage), *Podoviridae*, *Siphoviridae*, and *Myoviridae* (table S2).

Fifteen of the 18 viral genomes (from four of the five SUP05 viral genomic bins) contained genes encoding the α (rdsrA) and γ (rdsrC) subunits of the reverse-acting dissimilatory sulfite reductase (Rdsr) complex for elemental sulfur oxidation (Fig. 1). No other rdsr genes or other sulfur oxidation genes were present on the viral genomes. Analysis of bacterial genome bins recovered from Lau and Guaymas metagenomes revealed colocalized rdsr genes in the order rdsrABEFHCMKLJOPN in the Gammaproteobacteria Lau10 (SUP05), Lau62 (EC-01-9C-26), and Lau60 (unclassified). The Deltaproteobacterium Lau20 (Sar324) (14) possessed only rdsrAB. Regions flanking the bacterial rdsr genes showed no similarity to the viral genome sequences, suggesting that viral rdsr genes were derived from selective retention rather than recent homologous recombination with bacterial genomic DNA.

Phylogenetic analyses indicated that all viral rdsrA genes recovered were affiliated with SUP05 Gammaproteobacteria (74 to 96% amino acid identity) (fig. S5) and distinct from rdsrA genes of other bacteria (Fig. 2). We identified two distinct groups of rdsrA sequences that each included both viral and bacterial sequences. All viral rdsrA genes fall into group one, except for Lau85, which contained two copies of rdsrA with one representative in each group. Bacterial representatives of group one included the SUP05 GB-1 and GB-2 from Guaymas, as well as Bathymodiolus mussel symbionts (6). Group two was populated by SUP05 from oxygen minimum zones (7) and symbionts of deep-sea clams (5). The tight phylogenetic clustering of rdsrA gene sequences of three distinct phage families with SUP05 bacteria in two separate lineages suggests that the phage rdsrA genes originated from SUP05 and were transferred to viruses. These observations are analogous to those

¹Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA. ²Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA. ³Applied Ocean Physics and Engineering, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MO2543, USA. ⁴Department of Soil, Water, and Climate, University of Minnesota—Twin Cities, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA. ⁵Center for Computational Medicine and Bioinformatics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA.

 $[\]hbox{*Corresponding author. E-mail: $gdick@umich.edu}\\$

Fig. 1. Gene content of 15 phage genomes from three viral families retrieved from Lau and Guaymas basins. Colored nested circles represent syntenous viral genomes and contiguous genomic fragments from locations indicated in the legend. Gray boxes on the outermost circles indicate predicted genes from the Kilo Moana viruses. *rdsrA* and *rdsrC* genes are highlighted in yellow. Kbp, thousand base pairs.

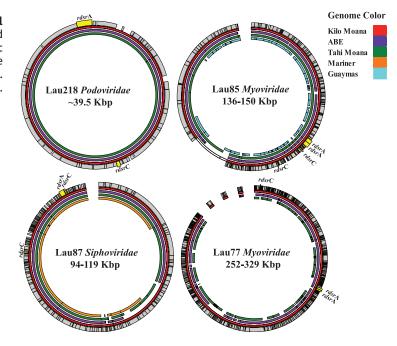
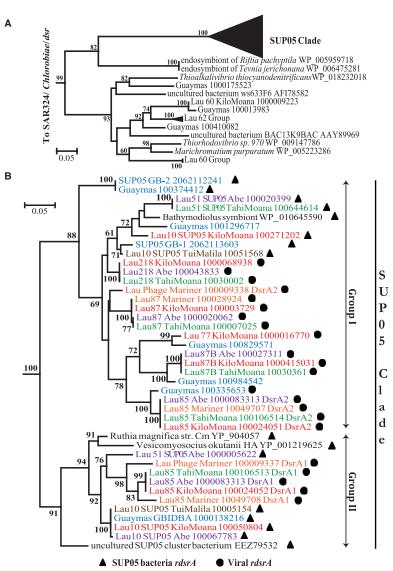


Fig. 2. Phylogeny of *rdsrA* genes from Lau and Guaymas basins inferred by Maximum Likelihood. (A) Phylogenetic tree showing the SUP05 *rdsrA* gene clade in relation to closely related sequences. (B) Detailed view of the SUP05 *rdsrA* clade. Group one and group two subclades are shown on the right. Sequences are colored by geographical origin: blue, Guaymas Basin; red, Kilo Moana (Lau Basin); green, Tahi Moana (Lau Basin); purple, ABE (Lau Basin); brown, Tui Malila (Lau Basin); orange, Mariner (Lau Basin).



of core photosynthesis genes in cyanobacterial phages and other microbe-derived auxiliary metabolic genes (15, 16) (e.g., psbA, psbD, mazG) that are similar but not identical to known hosts, forming subclusters distinct from host proteins (17, 18).

The amino acid sequences deduced from the viral rdsrA and rdsrC genes indicated the capacity to serve as functional sulfur-oxidizing enzymes. Phage RdsrA contained all conserved sulfite reductase residues and secondary structure elements for α helix and β sheets (fig. S6). Similarly, a multiple alignment of RdsrC amino acid sequences indicated highly conserved residues across two distinct groups (fig. S7). We also identified other genes in the viral genomes with high sequence identity to SUP05, including iron-sulfur cluster proteins, cytochromes, and sulfur relay proteins (table S3). The existence of these additional SUP05like genes on viral genomes supports their specificity to SUP05 bacteria and suggests a role for viral genes in supplementing host metabolism.

Elemental sulfur is a key and stable intermediate of bacterial oxidation of reduced sulfur compounds and constitutes a "bottleneck" in the sulfur cycle (19). Sulfur-oxidizing bacteria with an incomplete Sox pathway, such as SUP05, form intracellular or extracellular globules of elemental sulfur that serve as an electron-donor reserve for energy metabolism (Fig. 3) (4, 19–21). The presence of rdsrA and rdsrC on viral genomes may offer selective advantages to the viruses by sup-

plementing host pathways for oxidation of this sulfur during infection. First, enhanced expression of *rdsrA* could replenish proteins involved in a rate-limiting reaction in the host, as previously demonstrated with cyanobacterial phage D1 proteins involved in photosynthesis (22). Second, phage *rdsrC* could maintain or increase high transcription levels to ensure efficient delivery of sulfur substrate to the RdsrAB complex during infection. Thus, phage auxiliary metabolic genes that can supplement or sustain sulfur oxidation metabolism in their hosts may ensure continued viral infection and replication.

A coupled bioenergetic-thermodynamic reaction path model (23) indicated that aerobic elemental sulfur oxidation potentially accounted for 80 to 93% of the total lithotrophic energy available in the ABE and Mariner hydrothermal plumes at Lau Basin at two temperatures that were representative of the plumes studied here (Fig. 4A and fig. S8). The model predicted a minor role for 19 other lithotrophic microbial metabolisms, including oxidation of other reduced sulfur species such as hydrogen sulfide, sulfite, and thiosulfate. These results were consistent with a previous model of hydrothermal plumes that found elemental sulfur to be the most abundant source of chemosynthetic energy (24), as well as with our previous work (4, 25, 26), which was based on the same approach. Our model predicted greater relative energy yields for more energetically favored metabolisms, such as sulfur oxidation, because we assumed that metabolic reactions occurred in sequence from most to least energetically favored. Our model also enabled reactions to explicitly modify the product and reactant pools. Although there is some uncertainty regarding the speciation of sulfur present in the plume, elemental sulfur is a central intermediate in the oxidation of other reduced forms of sulfur used by SUP05 (Fig. 3). X-ray fluorescence maps showed that sulfur was abundant in the plumes (Fig. 4B and fig. S8), whereas microprobe x-ray diffraction showed that elemental sulfur was widely present in particle aggregates with other crystalline phases, such as pyrite (Fig. 4C and fig. S8). Although we did not conclusively identify intracellular elemental sulfur, our results showed that elemental sulfur presented an abundant source of energy for SUP05 bacteria in hydrothermal plumes and deep ocean waters of Guaymas and Lau basins.

The abundance and diversity of viruses infecting SUP05 bacteria in hydrothermal plumes suggests that chemolithoautotrophs in the deep sea face viral predation pressures similar to photosynthetic microbes in the surface waters (27). The marked synteny and conservation of the four viruses studied here (95 to 99% genome nucleotide identity) across hydrothermal vent environments and ocean basins suggests that these viruses are ubiquitous in marine environments dominated by SUP05 bacteria. Analyses of the Pacific Ocean Virome data set (28) (fig. S9), which notably contains viral communities from oxygen minimum

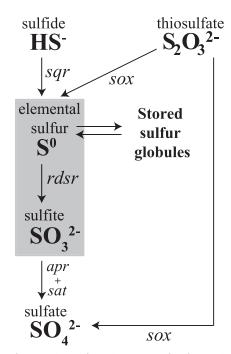


Fig. 3. Schematic of the sulfur oxidation pathway in SUP05 bacteria. The gray box indicates the reaction affected by SUP05 viruses. Key genes are shown in italics: *sqr* (sulfide quinone reductase), *sox* (sulfur oxidation), *rdsr* (reverse dissimilatory sulfite reductase), *apr* (adenosine 5'-phosphosulfate reductase), and *sat* (sulfate adenylyltransferase).

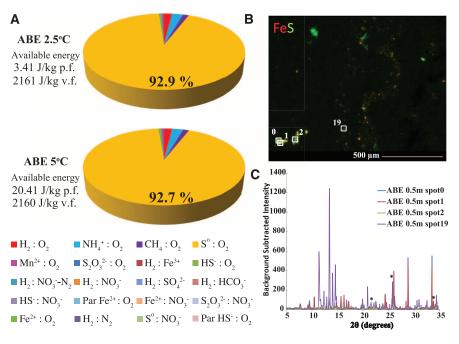


Fig. 4. Bioenergetics and occurrence of sulfur in the ABE hydrothermal plume. (**A**) Modeled free energies of catabolic reactions as a percentage of total available free energy in the ABE hydrothermal plume at 2.5° and 5°C. Total available free energy in the plume is normalized per kilogram of plume fluid (p.f.) and per kilogram of vent fluid (v.f.). (**B**) Distribution of iron (red) and sulfur (green) in particles collected at 0.5 m above the ABE vent. Locations where elemental sulfur was detected by microprobe x-ray diffraction measurements are indicated as spots 0, 1, 2, and 19. (**C**) Radially integrated diffractograms with elemental sulfur peaks annotated (asterisks) at 22.0°, 25.7°, and 34.1° 2θ.

zones dominated by SUP05 (7), revealed the presence of *rdsrA* and *rdsrC* genes (table S5), consistent with the prevalence of phage-encoded sulfur oxidation beyond hydrothermal plumes and in the wider pelagic oceans.

To date, deep-sea SUP05 has evaded growth in laboratory cultures; thus, direct host-phage manipulations and validation of the underlying mechanisms of phage-influenced sulfur oxidation remain a challenge. Yet, this study demonstrates the sequence-based elucidation of microbial community dynamics through the discovery of phages that infect a widespread deep-sea bacterium. The existence of *rdsr* genes in viral genomes reveals a mechanism for horizontal transfer of genes associated with sulfur cycling (29) and implicates viruses in the evolutionary dynamics of a central step in the planetary cycling of sulfur.

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Supplementary Materials

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Positive Feedback Within a Kinase Signaling Complex Functions as a Switch Mechanism for NF-kB Activation

Hisaaki Shinohara, 1* Marcelo Behar, 2,3* Kentaro Inoue, 1 Michio Hiroshima, 4,5
Tomoharu Yasuda, 6† Takeshi Nagashima, 1‡ Shuhei Kimura, Hideki Sanjo, 6§ Shiori Maeda, 6
Noriko Yumoto, 1 Sewon Ki, 1 Shizuo Akira, 4 Yasushi Sako, 5 Alexander Hoffmann, 2,3 Tomohiro Kurosaki, 6,9 Mariko Okada-Hatakeyama 1

A switchlike response in nuclear factor— κB (NF- κB) activity implies the existence of a threshold in the NF- κB signaling module. We show that the CARD-containing MAGUK protein 1 (CARMA1, also called CARD11)—TAK1 (MAP3K7)—inhibitor of NF- κB (I κB) kinase- β (IKK β) module is a switch mechanism for NF- κB activation in B cell receptor (BCR) signaling. Experimental and mathematical modeling analyses showed that IKK activity is regulated by positive feedback from IKK β to TAK1, generating a steep dose response to BCR stimulation. Mutation of the scaffolding protein CARMA1 at serine-578, an IKK β target, abrogated not only late TAK1 activity, but also the switchlike activation of NF- κB in single cells, suggesting that phosphorylation of this residue accounts for the feedback.

he transcription factor nuclear factor- κB (NF- κB) has a central role in determining cellular outcomes (I-3). Stimulus-driven NF- κB activity is highly dynamic and shows oscillations due to transcriptionally inducible negative feedback of inhibitor of NF- κB (I κB) (3-6). When examined at the single-cell level, NF- κB activity is triggered in a switchlike manner, and the number of fully activated cells underlies a

shallow population dose response (6). The switch-like response in NF- κ B activity implies the existence of a threshold in the receptor-proximal signaling module, but this mechanism has not been elucidated.

In B cell receptor (BCR) signaling, NF- κ B activity determines multiple B cell functions (7) (Fig. 1A). BCR stimulation by cognate antigen first induces activation of protein kinase C β (PKC β),

which phosphorylates serine-668 (S668) of CARD-containing MAGUK protein1 (CARMA1, also called CARD11). This modification causes a conformational change in CARMA1, allowing recruitment and activation of both the protein

¹Laboratory for Integrated Cellular Systems, RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences (IMS-RCAI), Tsurumi-ku, Yokohama, Kanagawa 230-0045, Japan. ²Signaling Systems Laboratory, Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA. 3 Institute for Quantitative and Computational Biosciences (QC Bio) and Department of Microbiology, Immunology, and Molecular Genetics, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA 90025, USA. ⁴Laboratory for Cell Signaling Dynamics, RIKEN Quantitative Biology Center (QBiC), 6-2-3, Furuedai, Suita, Osaka 565-0874, Japan. ⁵Cellular Informatics Laboratory, RIKEN, 2-1 Hirosawa, Wako 351-0198, Japan. ⁶Laboratory for Lymphocyte Differentiation, RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences (IMS-RCAI), Tsurumi-ku, Yokohama, Kanagawa 230-0045, Japan. ⁷Graduate School of Engineering, Tottori University 4-101, Koyama-minami, Tottori 680-8552, Japan. 8Laboratory of Host Defense, WPI Immunology Frontier Research Center, Osaka University, 3-1 Yamada-oka, Suita, Osaka 565-0871, Japan. ⁹Laboratory for Lymphocyte Differentiation, WPI Immunology Frontier Research Center, Osaka University, 3-1 Yamada-oka, Suita, Osaka 565-0871, Japan.

*These authors contributed equally to this work. †Present address: Max-Delbrück-Center for Molecular Medicine, 13125 Berlin, Germany.

‡Present address: Division of Cell Proliferation, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine, Sendai, Miyagi 980-8575, lapan.

§Present address: Department of Molecular and Cellular Immunology, Shinshu University School of Medicine, 3-1-1 Asahi, Matsumoto, Nagano 390-8621 Japan.

IlCorresponding author. E-mail: ahoffmann@ucla.edu (A.H.); kurosaki@rcai.riken.jp (T.K.); marikoh@rcai.riken.jp (M.O-H)





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